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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

A

MANUAL

OF

PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ON A NEW AND EASY PLAN;

FOR

Schools, Families and Self-Instructors.

BY HEZ. MUNSELL, JR.

PRODESSE QUAM CONSPICI.

ALBANY:
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PREFACE.

While but few instances of originality are expected from the discovery of new materials in grammar, it is confidently believed that many new and useful arrangements of the materials already known and approved can be adapted to the easy inculcation of grammatical knowledge. To imprint on the memory and understanding of the learner an image of the most prominent features of the etymological part is one principal design of the writer of this treatise. This he seeks to effect by an analytical and synthetical view of its principal topics reduced to as narrow a compass as may consist with perspicuity. Placing those topics in juxta-position and close proximity renders them easier of access to a beginner, than scattering them over several pages with explanations of each at inconvenient distances. In the explanations here given in columns under the principal subjects brief and plain definitions are sought, referring the learner in due time to various annotations upon the parts of speech and syntactical rules. Having acquired the essentials of the parts of speech thus defined, by attentively viewing and retaining in memory the synthetical text contained in the synopsis of etymology, and by suitable exercises, the learner's progress is made easy and ultimately successful, as experience has demonstrated. More than half of the acquisition of a competent grammatical knowledge is obtained in the etymological part; hence, the special utility of bringing that part immediately home to the understanding and memory of the student. In the syntactical part of the work, it is believed, the rules and notes will suffice for parsing all sentences and phrases expected to

occur. Though most writers agree in the essentials of grammar, there are a few controverted points for the defence of either side of which a hundred grammars, ancient and modern, may be cited, — leaving the disputed points still unsettled. It is, however, generally easy to distinguish needless innovations from established use.

The writer of this Manual has consulted a respectable number of the best philological works, with a sedulous and candid attention, and without aiming at a servile, sequacious tread in the footsteps of others, has yet endeavored to profit by their labors. This is a modification and enlargement of a treatise, published many years since, by the writer of this, for his friends of "the olden time," whose approbation of it is sensibly remembered; and whose descendants, as well as his own, and all the patrons of this brief literary attempt, he trusts, may derive some benefit from this renewal of his labors. He had prepared most of the materials for this book before the weight of declining years admonished him of the near approach of the night in which no man can work. He does not suppose he has produced a work which "neither fire, nor flood, nor the corroding tooth of time shall be able to destroy;" when he appreciates the excellence of others, and when he considers the probable mutations of language, the capricious affectation of innovators upon approved and long established usage, and the shifting changes of literary as well as other fashions which bid defiance to abler conservative pens, than any which he assumes to hold; but, if he shall contribute with others to the advancement of useful education by furnishing his friends and the public with what the title page proposes, his main design will be accomplished and his ambition satisfied. How well he has succeeded in this design, the judgment of a discerning public will decide.

Hoosick Falls, N. Y.,
December, 1850.

GRAMMAR.

English Grammar, united with rhetoric, teaches to speak, read and write the English language with propriety and elegance. It is the law of the language, established by national custom and the usage of the learned, and consists of four principal parts — Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody. Orthography, or true spelling, is learned chiefly from spelling books and dictionaries, from notice of good composition, and from oral teaching. Etymology explains the ten classes or parts of speech, to which words belong, viz: articles, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The word, etymology, also expresses the derivation of words. Syntax teaches the formation of correct and elegant sentences. Prosody teaches the just pronunciation of words and the principles of English verse. From the order in which the subjects of grammar may be conveniently and methodically explained, it may consist of six parts, Orthography, Orthoepy, Etymology, Syntax, Punctuation and Orthometry.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography, or true spelling, explains the elementary sounds of language and the use of the alphabet, in the formation of syllables and words. The English alphabet, the name of which comes from Alpha and Beta the two first letters of the Greek, contains twenty-six letters; principally borrowed from the Roman, the characters, great and small, and their names being well known, and

therefore requiring no insertion. A perfect alphabet would contain a character for every simple sound and no more. In this respect our alphabet is defective; one character representing several different sounds, as *a* has its own sound in late, another sound in hall, and another in art; while some sounds have no single character to represent them, as the sound of *ng* in song; and the sound of *th* in them, &c. And one sound is sometimes represented by several characters, as *j* in jest has the same sound as *g* in gentle. The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, are called vowels, and so is *y* in the midst and at the end of syllables, and *w* at the end of syllables. The other letters are consonants, as are *w* and *y* at the beginning of syllables. The consonants *f*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *z*, and the combinations *ng*, *th* and *sh* are semi-vowels, as are *w* and *y* when they are consonants. The other consonants are called mutes, because their sounds can not be prolonged. A vowel is a sound which can be continued at pleasure, without any contact of the organs of speech, or change of their position. The sound of the semi-vowels can be continued at pleasure with some contact of the organs. A proper diphthong is a union of two sounded vowels in one syllable, as *oi* in voice and *ow* in now. If one of the vowels be silent, the union of the vowels is an improper diphthong, as *ai* in laid; the letter *i* in that word merely denoting the long or natural sound of *a*. The meeting of three vowels in a syllable is called a triphthong, as in *view*, though but two of the vowels are sounded. In the word *beau*, neither of the vowels has its own natural sound; some of the vowels are arbitrarily made by custom to represent other vowel sounds very different from their own, so that we have just eight simple vowel sounds, excluding *i* and *u* long as being diphthongs; long *i* being composed of short *u* in tun, and short *i* in tin, as the pronoun *I* is pronounced in common discourse. Some writers, by mistake or inattention, have considered the sound in that pronoun to be those of *a* in hall and *e* in me. Others have erroneously said, the sounds are those of *a* in art and *e* in me. Long *u*, as in tune, is composed of short *i* in pin and *oo* in book.

All the vowe sounds, eight in number, are exemplified in *italics*, in the following table or scheme, and the several uses to which the characters, called vowels, are applied, concisely explained.

a long, or natural,

1 in *late*,	2 short in *at*,	3 broad in *all*,	4 flat or Italian a, in *art*,
and a short quality of the same, as in many and any;	and a long quality, in fair, wear;	and a short quality, in what;	and a feeble sound of short *u*, in liar, (see No. 8).

5 *e* long as in *me*,	short in *met*,	*e* in *obey*,	*e* in *there*.
short quality, in England;	being the short quality of *a*, in late (No. 1);	used for long *a*, (see No. 1);	used for *a*, in fair, (see No. 2).

i (diphthong)

long in *pine*,	short in *pin*,	French sound of *i* in *machine*,
being short *u* and short quality of long *e* or short *i*;	being the short quality of long *e*, (see No. 5);	being the same as long *e*, (see No. 5).

o long,

6 as in *Rome*,	short in *not*,	*o* in *move*, or *oo* in *room*, *o* in *done*, or *oo* in *flood*,
and a short quality, in home;	same as *a*, in what, (see No. 3);	short quality in book;	same as short *u*, (see No. 8).

u (diphthong)

long as in *tune*	8 short sound in *tun*, *u* in *full*,	*u* in *bury*,
being short, *i* and *oo*;	being short quality, of *oo* in fool, (see No. 7);	same as short *e* in met, or short quality of *a*, in many, (see No. 1).

y long, as in *Clyde*,	short, in *hypocrite*,
same as long *i*;	same as short *i*, in pin, being the short quality of *e* long (see No. 5).

W, at the end of syllables, is the same as *oo* in book, and in such situations makes part of a diphthong as in *few*, *now*, the diphthong in the last word being composed of *o* in not, and *oo* in book; but many of the learned, as well as the unlearned, use the sound of *a* in at, and *oo* in book, in this word; and in all instances of the diphthongs *ou* and *ow*. Though all vowel sounds, whether denominated long or short, may be prolonged at pleasure, yet the long and short sounds,

so called, as of long *o* in note and short *o* in not, are supposed to be well understood, but these short *sounds* are to be understood as entirely different from the short *qualities* of the vowels as exemplified in the foregoing table. Those qualities nearly resembling the long sounds are accounted the same while the so termed *short sound* of a vowel, as of *o* in not has no resemblance of its long sound in note. The exercise of prolonging the vowel sounds and diphthongs, and the semi-vowels has been found useful. Beside the use of some vowels for others, as seen in the foregoing examples, these are often silent and used merely like *e* final at the end of words, to denote the long or natural sound of *a* preceding vowel, as *e* final in late, mate, and silent *i* in laid, maid, and silent *a* in lead, mead.

SOUNDS OF THE CONSONANTS.

B, has but one sound as in book. It is sometimes silent as in debt, and when silent, sometimes, denotes the long sound of the preceding vowel, as in climb.

C, has three sounds: 1st, of *k* in care; 2d, of *s* in cedar; 3d, of *sh* in social.

D, has but one sound as in deed, except when sounded like *t* at the end of some words, as tripped, slipped, which words sometimes end in *t*.

F, has its own natural sound, except in the word of, and is sometimes arbitrarily represented by *ph* and *gh*, as in Philip, laughter

G, has two sounds—one in gold, the other in gentle.

H, is a mark of aspiration, as in hat, except when combined with *c*, as in chat. It is silent at the beginning of some words, as in honor.

J, has the sound of soft *g*, as in joy, composed of *d* and of *s* in osier, except when it is sounded in hallelujah like the consonant g. Its place was formerly occupied by the letter *i*.

K, has but one sound, as in keep, it is silent before *n* as in knowledge.

L, has but one sound, as in love. It is sometimes silent as in walk. It is doubled at the end of monosyllables, as in mill, hill, except when preceded by a diphthong, as in hail, sail.

M, has but one sound, as in memory, except in the word comptroller; and is never silent except in the first syllable of the word, mnemonics.

N, has but one sound, as in pen. At the end of a syllable it is silent after *m*, as in hymn.

P, has but one sound, as in paper, and is sometimes mute as in psalm. When united with *h*, the combination has the sound of *f*, as in Philip, except in Stephen.

Q, is always followed by *u*, and is sounded like *k*, as in question.

R, has but one sound, as in Rome, and is never silent.

S, has four sounds: 1st, its natural sound as in say; 2d, like *z* as in rose; 3d, its sound in osier; 4th, like *sh* as in passion.

T, has four sounds: 1st, its natural sound, as in tall; 2d, like *s* in satiety; 3d, like *sh*, as nation; 4th, like *ch*, as in question.

V, has but one sound, as in very. The Romans used the form for *u*, as Jvlivs (Julius).

W, as a consonant, has but one sound, as in wood. It has the power of *oo*, accompanied by a slight labial compression and an emission of breath.

X, is a compound of the powers of *k* and *s*, as in box, but is sounded like *z* in Xerxes; and sometimes like *gz*, as in exist.

Z, has its own natural sound, as in zeal; and a sound a little different in azure.

&, this is a character standing for *and* or *et*.

Rules for the sounds and various uses of the letters, including rules for spelling and pronunciation, are given in extensive philological treatises, transcending the proper limits of a practical work of this kind, but as a recurrence to some general rules of spelling is often found convenient, the following rules are presented:—

1st. Monosyllables,* ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, after a single vowel double the final consonant as staff, hill, grass, except *f* in of and if, and except *s* in as, is, has, his, this, us, thus, yes. Other consonants ending monosyllables, after single vowels, are never doubled, excepting in the words, add, ebb, egg, butt, (a measure) odd, err and inn, (a tavern).

2d. All derivatives † in less, ness, ly and ful, coming from words ending in *ll*, have one *l* only, as fulness from full, skilful from skill.

3d. Participles in *ing*, derived from verbs ending in *e*, drop the *e* in spelling the participle, as having from have, writing from write, &c.; and *e* is also omitted in derivatives ending in *ish*, as knavish, slavish, &c., but *ee* is retained, as seeing, agreeing.

4th. The letter *y*, after a consonant, is commonly changed into *i* in derivatives, as happily from happy, and into *ies* in the plural of nouns and third person singular of verbs, as glories from glory, denies from deny.

5th. When a word whose last syllable is accented ends

* Monosyllables are words of one syllable.

† Derivatives are words coming from others called primitives, as from great comes greatness.

with a single consonant after a single vowel, that consonant is doubled in the derivative, as penning from pen, beginning from begin.

A syllable may be defined the sound of one vowel or proper diphthong, together with such sounded consonants as are united with such vowel or diphthong. When a consonant ends an accented syllable, the single vowel is said to have its short sound as *o* in not, but if the vowel end the syllable, it has its long or natural sound, as *o* in no, unless it be allied to the consonant in the next syllable, as in tra-gedy, veracity.

The direction to divide words into syllables according to the pronunciation is a general rule, rather indefinite, and perhaps a little preposterous, when it supposes the reader always to understand the pronunciation previous to the aid of any definite rules for the division of a word into syllables. The habit of spelling words already divided affords a valuable substitute for precise rules, but must fail to guide to the pronunciation of many words with which the reader may remain unacquainted, which may not have been divided for him in his lessons in spelling.

The following rules, most of which are of long standing, may therefore assist in pronunciation and writing; being a part of orthoepy, a branch of prosody so closely connected with orthography, as to be placed in this connection, by several approved writers, on prosodial grammar.

Rule 1st. A consonant, in words of more than one syllable between two vowels, goes to the last, as ha-bit, de-note; but if the reader previously know, it will agree with the pronunciation, it may go to either vowel, as hab-it; but the letter *x* and the consonants in words compounded, always go to the preceding vowel, as in ex-ist, unequal.

2d. When two or three consonants proper to begin a word, meet between two vowels, the consonants go to the last of those vowels, as in geo-graphy, description; but one of such consonants may go to the accented syllable

when the vowel in that syllable is known to be short, as in theoc-racy.*

Note.—The combinations of consonants fit to begin a syllable are forty-two in number, viz: *bl, br, ch, chr, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gn, gr, kn, ph, pl, pr, rh, sc, sh, sk, sl, sm, sn, sp, sq, st, sw, th, tr, tw, wh, wr, phr, sch, scr, shr, spl, spr, str, thr, thw.* When *gn, kn* or *wr* begin a syllable, *g, k* or *w* is silent.

3d. Two consonants not fit to begin a syllable, meeting between two vowels, must be parted in dividing the word, as ab-sent, ignorant.

4th. When three or four consonants not proper to begin a syllable meet between two vowels, the first consonant is kept with the first syllable in the division, as in ab-stinence, mer-chant, em-phasis.

5th. Two vowels coming together, not making a diphthong, must of course be divided, as in di-al, di-urnal; but *eo*, though no diphthong, may not be divided, in peo-ple, enfeoff.

The primitive part of a word is commonly separated from the derivative, as in stand-ard, teach-er, exist-ence. The terminations *sion, tion, tial, cial* and *cian*, are kept separate from the other syllables.

Of Accent.

Accent is a greater stress of the voice upon some syllable than upon any other of the same word, as in conservative, the accent is on the second syllable. A secondary feeble accent is often placed on some part of a polysyllable,† as in exemplification; a secondary or half accent, so called, is on the second syllable, while the full accent is on the fifth. A familiar understanding of what accent is, may be acquired by a few exercises in placing the accent on unaccented syllables, to perceive the contrast between true and false accent.

Much has been said of accented consonants when the preceding vowels are short, as in habit, and of accented

* It neither conforms to the rule, nor leads to the true pronunciation, to place *g* nor *c* in the first syllable in magic, acid, &c.

† A polysyllable is a word of many syllables.

vowels when they are long, as in glory; but with deference to almost universal authority, it is supposed the accent may always be said to fall on the vowel, only as being the most audible sound in the syllable, while it is deemed impracticable to exert much voice upon the consonants, especially those called mutes, though they ought to be distinctly heard. The consideration of long and short quantity is chiefly confined to the reading of the classics. To the distinction of accent in dictionaries the reader must generally refer, but some rules of accentuation may be useful in this place.

1. In dissyllables,* when a double consonant is divided between the syllables the first is accented, as in better, cherry, college; and when other consonants are thus divided, the accent is commonly on the first, as amber, absent, except some verbs as to absent.

2. Trisyllables† and polysyllables having the termination *ance*, are generally accented on the antepenult ‡ syllable, as in elegance, significance, but when the primitive part of the word is accented on the last syllable, the derivative has it on the penult,§ as appearance from appear, reliance from rely; also when the termination is preceded by two consonants, as abundance, discordance.

3. Polysyllables having the termination *ence*, are commonly accented on the antepenult, as magnificence, coincidence; and those of other terminations are frequently accented in the like manner, on the antepenult, as anticipate, antistrophe, metropolitan; but polysyllables and other words ending in *tion*, *sion*, *cian*, *cial*, *tious* and *cious*, are commonly accented on the penult, as amplification, comprehension, physician, official, superstitious, officious.

4. Scripture names of persons and places, and their derivatives, having the terminations *ea*, *ean*, *ia*, *as*, *eus*, *ah*, or *aus*, are accented on the penult syllable, as Chaldea, Chaldean, Iturea, Sophia, Elias, Alpheus, Jeremiah, Hezekiah, Archelaus.

* Dissyllables are words of two syllables.
† Trisyllables are words of three syllables.
‡ The antepenult is the last syllable but two, in any word.
§ The penult syllable is the last but one.

Of Characters frequently used in Writing and Printing.

A hyphen - is a short line connecting syllables and compound words.

A small – dash is put over a vowel in some dictionaries, to denote its long sound, as a in hāte.

A breve ⌣ put over a vowel, denotes it to be short, as over a in hăt.

An apostrophe ' denotes the possessive case of substantives, as men's manners, William's book. It sometimes denotes the omission of a letter as Heav'n for Heaven, 'tis for it is.

Marks of quotation " " include words which a writer quotes from another as, An excellent poet says:

" All are but parts of one stupendous whole."

An asterisk or star, * directs a reader to some note in the margin or at the bottom of a page: other characters are used for the same purpose. It sometimes denotes the omission of some words,—thus, * * * The omission is sometimes denoted by a dotted line . . . .

A brace, } connects a number of words with one common term, to prevent repetition, and sometimes connects three lines in poetry, called a trĭplet, having the same rhyme.

The index or hand, ☞ points to some particular passage.

The caret ∧ distinguishes the place where the writer forgot to insert some letter or word, as they ∧ are good scholars.

A diæresis ¨ being two points over two vowels in a word, denotes them to be divided, as in Capernaüm.

The section § distinguishes the parts of a treatise, but the parts are sometimes numbered without the use of the character.

Brackets [ ] or crotchets, include some explanation of a foregoing word or sentence, the explanation and sometimes the character being called a parathesis.

A paragraph, ¶ denotes the beginning of a new division of a chapter. It is chiefly used in the Old and New Testaments. That character as well as the obelisk † often refers to some marginal note.

On the use of the Capital Letters.

Our ancestors in writing and printing, used to begin every noun with a capital letter, and that custom is seen in books not very ancient; but the custom is now discontinued, and small letters are used in all common words. It is, however, customary to begin,

1st. All proper nouns with a capital, and to begin with a capital the first word of every book, chapter, or composition.

2d. The first word after a period.

3d. The appellations of the Deity, as God, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit.

4th. Titles of honor and respect in direct addresses, as Sir, Your Honor, Your Excellency.

5th. Adjectives derived from the proper names of persons, places, &c., as Roman, Grecian, English, American, Augustan.

6th. Titles of books, as Thomson's Seasons, Pope's Essay on Criticism.

7th. The first word of every line in poetry.

8th. The pronoun I and the interjection O. It is said to be remarkable that the same pronoun in other languages is usually written with a small letter, and that ours is the only language which dignifies the little hero with a capital.

Particular words of importance are sometimes begun with a capital, as the Reformation.

ABBREVIATIONS.

A. B.	Artium Baccalaureus—Bachelor of Arts.	L. S.	Locus Sigilli—The place of the Seal.
Acct.	Account	Mat.	Matthew.
A. D.	Anno Domini—In the year of our Lord	M. D.	Medicinæ Doctor—Doctor of Medicine.
A. M.	Artium Magister—Master of Arts. Ante Meridiem—Before noon.	Messrs. Messieurs	Gentlemen, or Sirs, or Misters.
	Anno Mundi—In the year of the world.	Mr.	Master or Mister.
		Mrs.	Mistress.
Anon.	Anonymous.	MS.	Manuscriptum—Manuscript.
B. A.	Bachelor of Arts.	MSS.	Manuscripta—Manuscripts.
B. C.	Before Christ.	N.	Nota—Note.
Bart	Baronet	N. B.	Nota bene—Note well, or Take special notice.
B D.	Baccalaureus Divinitatis—Bachelor of Divinity	Nov.	November.
C	Centum—A hundred.	No.	Numero—Number.
Cwt.	A hundred weight.	N. S.	New Style.
Col.	Colossians, Colonel.	Oct.	October.
Cant.	Canticles.	O. S	Old Style
Capt.	Captain	P. S.	Postscriptum—Postscript.
Chap.	Chapter.	Pet.	Peter.
Co.	Company, County.	Phil.	Philip, Philipians.
Chron.	Chronicles	Philom.	Philomathes—A lover of learning; or Philomathematicus, a lover of the mathematics.
Cr.	Credit, Creditor.		
Dr.	Dear, Doctor. Debtor.		
D.	Denarius—A penny.	Pl.	Plural.
Do.	Ditto—The same.	P. M.	Post Meridiem,—Afternoon, Postmaster.
Dec.	December.		
Deut.	Deuteronomy.	Prof.	Professor
D. D.	Doctor Divinitatis—Doctor of Divinity.	Ps.	Psalm.
		Q.	Question.
D. V	Deo volente—God willing.	Q. d.	Quasi dicat—As if he should say.
e. g.	Exempli gratia.—For example.	Q l.	Quantum libet—as much as you please.
Eliz.	Elizabeth		
Eng.	England, English.	Q s.	Quantum sufficit—A sufficient quantity.
Eph.	Ephesians.		
Esq.	Esquire	Rev.	Reverend, Revelations.
Ex.	Exodus. example.	Sen.	Senior
Feb	February.	Sing.	Singular.
Fol.	Folio (two leaves in a sheet).	Ss. or Sc.	Scilicet—To wit.
F. R. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society.	S.	South; Solidus—A shilling.
Gal.	Galatians	S. E.	Southeast.
Gen.	Genesis, General.	Sept.	September.
Gent.	Gentleman.	St.	Saint, Street.
Geo	George.	S. W.	Southwest.
Heb.	Hebrew	Tho.	Thomas.
Hon.	Honorable.	Thess.	Thessalonians.
Ibid.	Ibidem—The same place.	Tim.	Timothy.
id	Idem—The same.	Tit.	Titus.
i. e.	Id est—That is.	Ult.	Ultimo—Last.
J. H. S.	Jesus Hominum Salvator—Jesus Savior of men.	U. S.	United States.
		V.	Vide—See.
Isa.	Isaiah.	Viz.	Videlicet—To wit, namely.
Jos.	Joseph.	Vol.	Volume
L.	Liber, a book; Libræ, pounds. or Lib. Liber.	vs.	Versus—Against.
		W.	West.
Lev.	Leviticus.	Wm.	William.
Lat.	Latitude.	Yd.	Yard.
Lieut.	Lieutenant.	&c.	Et cætera—And so forth; after a list of males, read et cæteri; after females, et cæteræ.
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Synopsis of Etymology, with Notes.

An Article is of two kinds,	*the definite,*	*and the indefinite.*
Is a word placed before a noun, to show the extent of its signification, and being so placed, resembles an adjective, as *a* book, *the* book or books, (*a*).	Article, is the word *the*, placed before common nouns.	Article, is the word *an*, before words beginning with a vowel or a silent *h*, as an island, an hour. The letter *n* is omitted before sounded consonants as *a* tree, a book, (*b*).

A Noun or	*is of two kinds,*		and has *persons,*	*numbers,*	*genders* and	*cases.*
	common and	*proper,*				
substantive is the name of any substance, as book, pen, paper, or of any invisible object, as faith, charity, happiness.	nouns are the names of whole classes or sorts, as trees, birds, books. They admit the article *the*, before them as the birds, the book, or the books.	nouns are names of particular persons, places, rivers, &c, as Mary, London, &c. They are usually of the singular num., and must begin with a capital letter, (*c*).	are the second when addressed, as O king, live for ever; and the 3d when spoken of, as the king lives.	are the sing. which speaks of but one, as book; and the plural which expresses more than one, as books, (*d*).	are three, masculine or male, feminine or female, and neuter or inanimate, (*e*).	are 3, the nominative, or doer, as boys write; the possessive denoting property, as Mary's book; and the objective, which denotes the receiver of the action, as men write books.

A Pronoun is chiefly of two kinds, (*g*), and has *persons*, *numbers*, *genders* and *cases*.
personal and *relative*,

a word used in the place of a noun to which it refers, and prevents too frequent repetition of names, as William reads, he writes well. He, is a pronoun, used for the noun, William.	pronouns are I, thou, he, she and it. We, ye or you, and they.	pronouns are who, which and what, the last being a compound equivalent to that which, when they ask questions, they are called interrogative pronouns. That, is often used for who and which, as the scholars that learn the books that we read.	are 3 in both numbers, viz: 1 person, I. 2 do. thou. 3 (mas. he, fem. she, neut. it. plural. (1 we, 2 ye or you, 3 they.	are 2, as in nouns.	are 3, as in nouns, see 3d person sing.	are 3, as in nouns. The personal pronouns are declined in the cases thus:

		nom.	poss.	obj.
sing.	1.	I,	mine,	me,
	2.	thou,	thine,	thee,
3.	*m.*	he,	his,	him.
	f.	she,	hers,	her,
	n.	it,	its,	it.
plu.	1.	We,	ours,	us,
	2.	ye or you,	yours,	you,
	3.	they,	theirs,	them.

The relatives are thus declined in both numbers: who, whose, whom, which, whose, which, (*g*).

An adjective has *three states*, *called degrees of comparison*,

is a word added to a noun to express some quality, circumstance or property of the noun, as a good book, a wise man, a sweet apple.

Words which are commonly used as adjectives, are sometimes considered nouns of multitude, as a kingdom of the just, the reward of the righteous; the noun to which the adjective belongs not being expressed, but understood; and therefore being considered as included in the adjective. Some adjectives qualify others, as full sweet, right worshipful, an English Commercial Dictionary, [Dictionary of English Commerce.]

viz: 1st, the positive degree, or first state of the adjective, as sweet; 2d, the comparative degree, or second state of the adjective, as sweeter; 3d, the superlative degree, or third state of the adjective, as sweetest. Adjectives may form the degrees by the aid of the adverbs more and most, as kind, more kind, most kind, or less kind and least kind; and this method of comparison is necessary for all adjectives of three or more syllables, as excellent, more excellent, most excellent; and many participles in the nature of adjectives, may be elegantly compared by the adverbs better and best, as learned, better learned, best learned. Adjectives of not more than two syllables, and having degrees, may be compared by adding *er* and *est* to the positive state, except some irregular adjectives, as good, bad, &c.

A Verb is transitive or intransitive,	and has *mode*,	*tense*,	*person* and *number*.
is a word expressing action or being, without which there can be no perfect sentence.	verbs act upon some object, and are therefore said to govern the objective case, as he brings the book.	verbs do not act upon any particular object, as I run, he walks.	is the manner of acting or being. There are four principal modes, viz: 1. The infinitive, which has no nominative case, and is commonly preceded by to, as to learn.* 2. The indicative which asserts or declares, as I learn. 3. The imperative which commands, exhorts or prays, as write, go, do thou grant. The potential is rather a division of the indicative, and expresses power, liberty, necessity or duty, by the aid of the helping verbs can, may, should and must, as I can write, &c. 4. The subjunctive expresses doubt, condition or suppostion, and is commonly preceded by the conjunction if, as if I learn (*h*).	is the time of the verb. There are three principal tenses, present, past and future. The present expresses action or being now performing or existing, as I write. The past expresses action, or being already performed or ended, as I wrote yesterday. This form of the verb is called its preterite or imperfect tense. The future tense foretels an action or being, as I shall or will write (*i*).	the person & number of the verb depends on the person & number of its nom. word having the same pers. and num. as that word, as I learn, thou learnest, he learns.

* The preposition to is omitted after see, hear, and some other verbs.

N. B.—All verbs, except the following, are called principal verbs, in distinction from those which are called auxiliary signs, or helping verbs, which are—do, be, have, shall, will, may, can and must. These words, with their inflections or variations, help to form the modes and tenses, for which they are called helping verbs. Do, be, have and will, are also used as principal verbs. Those principal verbs whose past tenses and past participles end in *ed*, as loved, educated, are called regular verbs, and all others, irregular. The combination of a past participle with *be*, or any of its variations, constitutes what some grammarians call a passive verb, as he is educated, they will be rewarded. *Be*, is considered as an auxiliary when assisting thus to form the passive verb. It is not strictly necessary to make such a verb in our language, though it may be a convenient introduction to an easier understanding of Greek and Latin passive verbs. Transitive verbs are, by some, called active, and are accordingly distinguished in some dictionaries by the initials, *v. a.*, while intransitive verbs are called neuter, and have the initials *v. n.*, but as many of those neuter verbs, so called, express much action, as to run, to fly, &c., while many that are distinguished as active, express little or no action, as to see, to hear, &c. The plainer distinction of transitive and intransitive verbs is preferred. The division into active and neuter, transitive and intransitive verbs is considered unnecessary.

A participle is of two kinds,	the *present* or *active*	and the *past* or *passive*
A participle is a word derived froma verb, and participates of the nature of a verb, a noun, or an adjective.	participle always end in *ing*, as writing, moving.	participle, sometimes called the perfect, commonly ends in *ed*, as moved, educated. It has some other ending only when it comes from an irregular verb.

Particles.

An adverb is a word added to verbs, to adjectives and to other adverbs, to affect or modify the word to which it is added, as very elegant, well written, &c. The most common adverbs are — already, always, asunder, downward, elsewhere, enough, ever, hence, here, hither, how, indeed, never, not, now, often, perhaps, rather, seldom, so, then, thence, there, thither, very, upward, when, whence, where, whilst or while, whither, with many that are derived from adjectives, and end in *ly*, as honestly, justly, truly, &c., (*j*).

A preposition expresses the relation of words. The most common are—above, about, after, against, amid or amidst, among or amongst, around, at, before, behind, beneath, beyond, beside, but, by, for, from, in, into, of, on or upon, over, to or unto, toward, under, with, within, without. But and for, are sometimes conjunctions, (*k*).

A conjunction connects words and sentences. The most common are — and, as, because, either, neither, if, nor, or, since, that, though, unless, whereas, whether. And, if, because, are called copulative conjunctions; or, nor, either, neither, and some others are disjunctive, (*l*).

An interjection is a sound used to denote a sudden passion or emotion, as O, or Oh! Ah! Alas! &c.

NOTES ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Articles, (*a*) When a noun is taken its widest signification, the articles are omitted, as man is mortal, *i. e.* all mankind.

(*b*) The article *the* is used before common nouns, singular and plural, but the article *a* is never used before plural nouns, except when they are preceded by the adjectives few, many, dozen, hundred, &c., and then these words are considered by some, as nouns, followed by *of* understood, as a few books, a great many trees, a dozen pens, a hundred dollars; *i. e.* a dozen of pens, &c. This

article is sometimes placed between the word many, and a singular noun, as many a bargain, many a flower, referring to many flowers, separately not collectively, considered.

Nouns, (*c*) Proper nouns sometimes used metaphorically, resembling common nouns, admit the plural number, as the Hampdens, the Edwards; and if they end in *y*, they form their plural by the addition of *s*, not *ies*, like common nouns, as

> "New Edwards and *Henrys* that swarm'd on the plain,
> New *Cressys* and Agincourts conquer'd again."

(*d*) Some nouns have no singular, as ashes, tongs, scissors, &c. Some have no plural, as wheat, gold, pride, industry; and some are the same in both numbers, as sheep, deer, swine, &c.

The plural number of nouns is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular, as books; and *es* when the singular ends in *ch*, *o*, *s*, *sh*, or *x*, as churches, heroes, grasses, &c. Nouns which make their plural by some other ending are accounted irregular, as men, women, children, pence, &c. When the singular ends in *y* immediately after a consonant, the plural ends in *ies*, as glories, beauties, &c. Some nouns derived from the Greek, change *on* into *a*, as criterion, criteria, phenomenon, phenomena. Some Hebrew nouns, or Scripture names, make the plural by adding *im* to the singular, as Baal, Baalim. Some nouns, borrowed from the Latin, have their plural in *a*, as medium, media, stratum, strata. The following are the same in both numbers in both languages, apparatus, series, species.

(*e*) The gender of doubtful nouns, as a person, a friend, is often explained by some preceding or subsequent word. The feminine gender of some nouns is denoted by their terminations, as empress, jewess, administratrix. For the sake of distinction, inanimate objects are called neuter, but may be often accounted masculine or feminine by a figure of rhetoric, as the sun "spreads his orient beams."

(*f*) The noun addressed, called the nominative case independent, answers to the latin vocative. When a present participle, in the nature of a verb, is connected with a noun or pronoun, it is said to be in the nominative case absolute to such participle, and is commonly formed by the omission of the particles when, while, after, because, &c., as they coming in he went away, or when after or because they came in, &c. Two nouns are sometimes, but not very often, used together in the possessive case, as Peter's wife's mother, &c. When the possessor is expressed by more than one noun, the possessive sign is annexed to the latter, as the king of England's troops. When the nouns end in *es* or *ss*, the possessive is made thus, Achilles' shield; for goodness' sake.

Pronouns (*g*) The following words are, by some grammarians, called definitive pronouns, viz: this, that, other, none, any, some. All these words, except none, are sometimes joined with a noun expressed, and always with a noun expressed or understood. When they are joined with a noun expressed, they may be called pronominal adjectives, or adjective pronouns; and so may which and what, as this book, that book, the other book or books, which book or books, what book or books. The other pronominal adjective or adjective pronouns are — are, my, thy, his, her, our, your, and their, which are derived from personal pronouns. Some grammarians arrange them as personal pronouns in the possessive case. When that arrangement is preferred, they may take the places of— mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs, which may then be called possessive pronouns in the nominative or objective case, and they will be the same in both numbers, but mine and thine will become adjective pronouns before nouns expressed, beginning with a vowel, as blot out mine iniquities. Each is a distributive pronoun of the singular number only, unless when joined with a noun expressed, when it may be called a pronominal adjective or adjective pronoun, as each scholar, each book.

The definitive pronouns are thus declined:

Singular,			Plural,		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
this,	wanting,	this,	these,	wanting,	these,
that,	do.	that,	those,	do.	those,
other,	others',	other,	others,	others',	others,
one,	one's,	one,	———	———	———
none,	wanting,	none,	none,	wanting,	none,
any,	do.	any,	any.	do.	any,
			some,	do.	some.

This and that, are often called demonstrative pronouns. This, often refers to a near object; that, to an object more remote. That, is sometimes used as a substitute for several words.

(*h*) The modes are commonly accounted five in number, viz: the *infinitive*, the *indicative*, the *imperative*, the *potential*, and the *subjunctive*. The potential mode is a division of the indicative: it expresses the obligation, determination, liberty, power and necessity of action, or being, and is known by the helping verbs, *should*, *will*, *would*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could* and *must*, or their variations; as, *I can write*, *thou mayest write*, &c. Hence these words, with the exception of *should*, *will* and *would*, may be called potential signs. *Will* and *would* are used in the potential mode, only when they are spoken with emphasis, or express volition, or determination. *Should* is used in this mode with and without emphasis, to express duty or obligation; as, you *should* help the poor, he *should* go to school. When it is differently used, it belongs to the indicative, as I *should* write if I had an opportunity. When a wish or a prayer is expressed, and a helping verb in the potential mode precedes the nominative word, the expression may be called the optative form of the potential mode; as, *may* he be restored to health. When the helping verbs *should*, *would*, *might* and *could*, are used in the present tense of the potential,

they constitute what may be called the conditional or hypothetical form of that mode; as, I *might* read Lucan, but I prefer Horace. When the same helping verbs are used in the present tense of the subjunctive mode, or when any verbs which would make past time in the indicative, are used in the present tense of the subjunctive, they constitute the hypothetical form of the latter; as, if I *wrote* as well as you do, I should think myself a good penman. Here the verb *wrote* is used in the present tense of the subjunctive mode, though it would make past time in the indicative. It may be remarked in this place, that the plural verb *were* is used in the singular number of the first, second and third person, in the hypothetical form of this mode; as, if I were, if thou wert, or if he were reading, the rest might hear and be instructed.

(*i*) Tense being the division of time, is, strictly speaking, divided only into present, past and future; yet, for the sake of pointing out the time of action, or being, with more accuracy, the past tense is commonly made to consist of three divisions, and the future tense of two, as may be seen by the following examples in each mode:

Infinitive Mode.	*Indicative Mode.*	*Imperative Mode.*	*Potential Mode.*	*Subjunctive Mode.*
	Persons Plural	Person Plural	Persons Plural	Persons Plural
Present to write,	1 2 3 1 2 3 write, writest, writes, write.	2 2 write thou write ye or you	1 2 3 1 2 3 may, can, &c. mayest may may may write write write write write	1 2 3 1 2 3 write write or write or write writest writes
Imperfect or 1st past { preterite / wanting	wrote, wrotest, wrote, wrote,		might, &c. mightest might might might write write write write	wrote wrote, &c. wrote wrote
Perfect, or 2d past { to have written	have hast has have written written written written		may, &c. mayest may may have have have have written written written written	have have or have have written hast, &c. or has written written
Pluperfect or 3d past { wanting.	had hadst had had written written written written		might, &c. mightest might might have have have have written written written written	had had or had had written hadst, &c. &c. written
1st future { to write to-morrow.	shall shalt shall shall write write write write or will, &c.	write thou or write do thou write ye, to-morrow, &c. &c.	may, can, &c. mayest, &c. write to-morrow, vide present &c. tense.	shall or shall or shall shall will, &c. will or &c. &c. shalt, &c.
2d future { wanting or to have written to-morrow.	shall shalt shall shall have have have have written written written written or will have, &c.	Perhaps it may be deemed unnecessary, in this mode, to insert a future tense.	can, &c. have canst, &c. written to-morrow, vide perfect row, next week, tense. &c.	shall have, shall or shall, shall, &c. shalt, &c. &c. &c. In like manner if I may, can &c., if thou may or mayest, &c.

It is seen by the foregoing tabular conjugation of a principal verb, that it has only two forms, or states, to express time, consisting of the present and imperfect tenses, as, I write, I wrote. The other tenses of the indicative, as well as all the tenses of the potential, are expressed by combinations of auxiliaries with the principal verb or the participle, as I have written, I had written, I shall write, shall have written, I can write, must write, &c. In such combinations the helping verbs only are varied, as I can write, thou canst write, &c. The present tense may be tested or known in the several modes by the adverb now, as I write now. The imperfect tense may be known by placing after it the word yesterday, as I wrote yesterday. The perfect tense which denotes an action just completed, is known by the sign, have, combined with the past participle in the indicative and subjunctive, as I have written, if I have written; and with may have or must have in the potential, as I may have written, or must have written; and by the same combination in the potential branch of the subjunctive, as, if I must have written. The pluperfect tense expresses an action done prior to another specified action, and in the indicative and indicative branch of the subjunctive is known by the sign had, as I had written, if I had written, &c.; and in the potential and potential branch of the subjunctive, is usually known by the signs—might have, or could have, as I might have written, &c., if I might have written, &c.; being the sign have, preceded by a helping verb of past time. The helping verb had, is sometimes used for would have, as

> Great Julius, on the mountains bred,
> A flock, perhaps, or herd had led.
> He who the world subdued had been,
> But the best wrestler on the green.

i. e. if he had been bred on the mountains he would have led, and would have been, &c.

Were is sometimes used for would be, as "It *were* easier to teach twenty what *were* good to be done, than to be one of the twenty to follow my own teaching.

Shall, in the first person, foretels or promises. In the other persons it implies some authority in the speaker, and in asking questions, commonly inquires the will or pleasure of others.

Will, in the first person, expresses volition or determination, as we will go. In the second and third persons it foretels, as you will fall, he will write; and sometimes with emphasis expresses volition.

Specimen of irregular verbs with their participles and preterites.

Verbs, present tense,	*present participles,*	*preterites,*	*past participles,*
arise,	arising,	arose,	arisen.
be, am,	being,	was,	been.
choose,	choosing,	chose,	chosen.
give,	giving,	gave,	given.
read,	reading,	read,	read.
write,	writing,	wrote,	written,

Specimen of regular verbs and their participles and preterites:

love,	loving,	loved,	loved,
hate,	hating,	hated,	hated,
direct,	directing,	directed,	directed.
educate,	educating,	educated.	educated.

The conjugation of a verb, which means joining it with its nominative in the several persons and numbers in the several modes and tenses, and exemplifying the tenses of the infinitive, is concisely shown in the foregoing table, but it may be amplified and further illustrated in the following examples, which present the definite and indefinite forms of the tenses, without attempting to alter the nomenclature which approved grammarians have long adopted and used. The definite form, called by some the progressive, is considered more definitely to express the time of the verb, than the other form termed the indefinite. The verb be, used as an auxiliary, combined with a present participle in the nature of a verb, constitutes the definite form. The plural pronoun you, is retained in the plural form only in its proper place, it is believed, in the following examples; for though it is

often addressed to an individual—a practice which originiated from complaisance, or as some say, from flattery, yet the practice assigned to that pronoun a plural verb, as you were instead of you was. It is true, that to depart from that practice can affect the form of but one verb—the verb to be, and that in but one tense; and it is therefore supposed, that this matter does not require much disputation. Perhaps the conservative side of the question is preferable to any unnecessary innovation, not fully established by custom. However, any teacher, or student, who prefers it, can easily place the pronoun in question with its verb, under the pronoun thou, in the following conjugation:

Conjugation of the regular verb direct, the definite form of which also presents the conjugation of be as a principal verb, and as an auxiliary.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Indefinite form.	*Definite form.*
To direct.	To be directing.

Perfect Tense.

To have directed.	To have been directing.

A future tense may be made by adding some word or phrase expressing futurity, as to-morrow, next week, &c., as I intend to direct to-morrow.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	
I direct *or* do direct.	I am directing.
Thou directest *or* dost direct.	Thou art directing.
He, she *or* it directs, directeth *or* does *or* doth direct.	He, she *or* it is directing.
Plural.	
We direct *or* do direct.	We are directing.
Ye *or* you direct, &c.	Ye or you are directing.
They direct, &c.	They are directing.

Imperfect Tense (or First Past).

Singular.	*Definite.*
I directed, &c.	I was directing.
Thou directedst.	Thou wast directing.
He, &c., directed.	He, &c., was directing.
Plural.	
We directed.	We were directing.
Ye *or* you directed.	Ye *or* you were directing.
They directed.	They were directing.

Perfect Tense (Second Past).

Called by some, *the Present Perfect.*—[Vide Perry and others.]

Singular.	
I have directed.	I have been directing.
Thou hast directed.	Thou hast been directing.
He, &c., has *or* hath directed.	He, &c., has *or* hath been directing.
Plural.	
We have directed.	We have been directing.
Ye *or* you have directed.	Ye *or* you have been directing.
They have directed.	They have been directing.

Pluperfect Tense (third past).

By some called, *Past Perfect.*—Vide, &c.

Singular.	
I had directed.	I had been directing.
Thou hadst directed.	Thou hadst been directing.
He, &c., had directed.	He, &c., had been directing.
Plural.	
We had directed.	We had been directing.
Ye *or* you had directed.	Ye *or* you had beeh directing.
They had directed.	They had been directing.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	
I shall or will direct.	I shall or will be directing.
Thou shalt or wilt direct.	Thou shalt or wilt be directing.
He, &c., shall or will direct.	He, &c., shall or will be directing.
Plural.	
We shall or will direct.	We shall or will be directing.
Ye *or* you shall or will direct.	Ye *or* you shall or will be directing.
They shall or will direct.	They shall or will be directing.

Second Future Tense.

Sometimes called *Compound Future*, and, by some, the *Future Perfect*.

Singular.	
I shall *or* will have directed.	I shall *or* will have been directing.
Thou shalt *or* will have directed.	Thou shalt *or* wilt have been directed.
He, &c., shall *or* will have directed.	He, &c., shall *or* will have been directing.
Plural.	
We shall *or* will have directed.	We shall *or* will have been directing.
Ye *or* you shall or will have directed.	Ye *or* you shall or will have been directing.
They shall *or* will have directed.	They shall *or* will have been directing.

The expressions, he directs, he has directed, &c., are of the common or familiar style, but he directeth, hath directed, &c., belong to the grave or solemn style, not so frequently used as the familiar. The auxiliary do is used in the place of other verbs to avoid repetition, as he writes better than I do, instead of better than I write; or to ask a question, as Why does he not write? or to express emphasis in the answer, as he *does* write; and sometimes it is used in the imperative, as do write. It is sometimes used in a formal style, especially in poetry, as—

> "Where I might sit, and nightly spell
> Of every star the sky doth shew," &c.

but such use is becoming obsolete.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.	*Definite form.*
Direct, direct thou, do thou direct.	Be *or* do thou be directing.
Plural.	
Direct, direct ye, *or* do ye *or* you direct.	Be *or* be ye *or* do you be directing.

Future time may be expressed by the additional words, to-morrow, next week, as do you direct to-morrow, &c.

POTENTIAL MODE, (or potential branch of the indicative.)

Present Tense.

SING.	*Indefinite.*	*Definite.*
	I may, can *or* must direct.	I may, can *or* must be directing.
	Thou mayest, canst *or* must direct.	Thou mayest, canst, *or* must be directing.
	He, &c., may, can *or* must direct.	He, &c., may, can *or* must be directing.
PLURAL.		
	We may, can *or* must direct.	We may, can *or* must be directing.
	Ye *or* you may, can *or* must direct.	Ye *or* you may, can *or* must be directing.
	They may, can *or* must direct.	They may, can *or* must be directing.

Imperfect Tense.

But serving also for *Present Tense* of the *conditional form.*

SINGULAR.	
I might, could, should *or* would direct.	I might, &c., be directing.
Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst *or* wouldst direct.	Thou mightest, &c., be directing.
He, &c., might, could, should or would direct.	He, &c., might, &c., be directing.
PLURAL.	
We might, &c., direct,	We might, &c., be directing.
Ye *or* you might, &c , direct.	Ye *or* you might, &c., be directing.
They might, &c., direct.	They might, &c., be directing.

Perfect Tense.

Called by some, the *Present Perfect.*

SINGULAR.	
I may have directed.	I may have been directing.
Thou mayest have directed.	Thou mayest have been directing.
He, &c., may have directed.	He, &c., may have been directing.
PLURAL.	
We may have directed.	We may have been directing.
Ye *or* you may have directed.	Ye *or* you may have been directing.
They may have directed.	They may have been directing.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. *Indefinite.*	*Definite.*
I might, could, should *or* would have directed.	I might, &c., have been directing.
Thou mightest, couldst, &c., have directed.	Thou mightest, &c., have been directing.
He, &c., mightest, couldst, &c., have directed.	He might, &c., have been directing.
Plural.	
We might, could, &c., have directed	We might, &c., have been directing.
Ye *or* you might, could, &c., have directed.	Ye *or* you might, &c., have been directing.
They might, &c., have directed.	They might, &c., have been directing.

The future tense of this mode may be expressed by adding some word, denoting futurity to the forms in the present tense, as I may direct to-morrow, next week, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE, (indicative branch).

Present Tense.

Singular.	
If I direct.	If I be directing, *or* if I am directing.
If thou direct *or* directest.	If thou be *or* art directing.
If he, &c., direct *or* directs.	If he be *or* is directing.
Plural.	
If we direct,	If we be *or* are directing.
If ye *or* you direct.	If ye *or* you be *or* are directing.
If they direct.	If they be *or* are directing.

Imperfect Tense.

Also, the hypothetical form of the *Present*, (except if I was, &c.)

Singular.	
If I directed.	If I was directing.
If thou directed *or* directedst.	If thou wast directing.
If he, &c , directed.	If he, &c., was directing.
Plural.	
If we directed.	If we were directing.
If ye *or* you directed.	If ye *or* you were directing.
If they directed.	If they were directing.

Extended examples of the hypothetical form, present tense.

If he directed them they would succeed. If we knew that he were directing them, we should be certain of their arrival.

Hypothethical form of the sing. present tense.

If I were directing.
If thou wert directing.
If he, &c., were directing.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. *Indefinite.*	*Definite.*
If I had directed	If I had been directing.
If thou hadst directed.	If thou hadst been directing.
If he, &c., had directed.	If he, &c., had been directing.
Plural.	
If we had directed.	If we had been directing.
If ye *or* you had directed.	If ye *or* you had been directing.
If they had directed.	If they had been directing.

Future Tense.

Singular.	
If I shall *or* will direct.	If I shall *or* will be directing.
If thou shalt *or* wilt direct.	If thou shalt *or* wilt be directing.
If he, &c., shall *or* will direct.	If he, &c., shall *or* will be directing.
Plural.	
If we shall *or* will direct.	If we shall *or* will be directing.
If ye *or* you shall *or* will direct.	If ye *or* you shall *or* will be directing.
If they shall *or* will direct.	If they shall *or* will be directing.

Second Future Tense.

(*Compound Future, or Future Perfect.*)

Singular.	
If I shall *or* will have directed.	If I shall *or* will have been directing.
If thou shalt *or* wilt have directed.	If thou shalt *or* wilt have been directing.
If he, &c., shall *or* will have directed.	If he, &c., shall *or* will have been directing.
Plural.	
If we shall *or* will have directed.	If we shall *or* will have been directing.
If ye *or* you shall *or* will have directed.	If ye or you shall have been directing.
If they shall *or* will have directed.	If they shall *or* will have been directing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE, continued, (potential branch).

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

If I may, can *or* must direct.
If thou mayest, canst *or* must direct.
If he, &c., may, can *or* must direct.

If I may, &c., be directing.
If thou mayest, &c., be directing.
If he, &c., may, &c., be directing.

PLURAL.

If we may, can *or* must direct.
If ye *or* you may, can *or* must direct.
If they may, can *or* must direct.

If we may, &c., be directing.
If ye *or* you may, &c., be directing.
If they may, &c., be directing.

Imperfect Tense.

Also, the *hypothetical form of the Present.*

SINGULAR.

If I might, could, would, *or* should direct.
If thou mightest, couldst, &c., direct.
If he, &c., might, &c., direct.

If I might, &c., be directing.
If thou mightest, &c., be directing.
If he, &c., might, &c., be directing.

PLURAL.

If we might, &c., direct.
If ye *or* you might, &c., direct.
If they might, &c., direct.

If we might, &c., be directing.
If ye *or* you might, &c., be directing.
If they might, &c., be directing.

Pluperfect Tense.

SING. *Indefinite.*	*Definite.*
If I might, &c., have directed.	If I might, &c., have been directing.
If thou mightest, couldst, &c., have directed.	If thou mightest, &c., have been directing.
If he, &c., might, &c., have directed.	If he, &c., might, &c., have been directing.
PLURAL.	
If we might, &c., have directed.	If we might, &c., have been directing.
If ye *or* you might, &c., have directed.	If ye *or* you might, &c., have been directing.
If they might, &c., have directed.	If they might, &c., have been directing.

The hypothetical form of this tense does not vary from the pluperfect. For a future tense, see the potential.

To form a passive verb, we may substitute the past participle for the present.

Some writers make no variations in the persons of the verb in the subjunctive, except in the imperfect tense of the verb to be.

A few words are called third personal verbs, and sometimes, impersonal verbs, from their invariable use in the third person, as it rains, it snows, &c. And some few are called defective, not being used in all the modes and tenses.

Every possible combination of principal verbs and participles with a pronoun, and with the helping verbs, may be concisely exhibited in the following examples:

The principal verb or participle, combined with a pronoun, and with *do*, and with *do* and be.	I choose, chose, do choose, did choose.	Indic and subj. modes.
	do thou choose, be choosing, be chosen.	Imperative.
with *Be*	Be thou choosing *or* chosen.	
	I am choosing *or* chosen.	Indic. and
	I was choosing *or* chosen.	subj.
	To choose.	
	To be choosing *or* chosen.	Infinitve.
with *have* and with *have* and *be*.	To have chosen, to have been choosing *or* chosen.	
	I have chosen *or* I have been choosing *or* chosen.	Indic. and
	I had chosen *or* I had been choosing *or* chosen.	subj.

Participles, having chosen *or* having been choosing *or* chosen.
The distinction, without any practical difference, of *compound perfect*, as having chosen, does not affect the form of the participle.

I, &c., combined with auxiliaries, verbs & participles: shall, should, will, would, may, might, can, could, must,

choose, be choosing, be chosen, have chosen, have been choosing, or have been chosen.

Adverbs, (*j*) Many adverbs enumerated in the foregoing catalogue, are in reality substitutes for other words or phrases, frequently of a noun and the governing preposition, as—there signifies in that place, here signifies in this place, hither to this place, hence from this place, from this fact or from these premises, &c. So, may sig-

nify in this manner or likewise, in like manner, &c.; and it is often substituted for many preceding words, and then it is an adverbial substitute. Such phrases being adjuncts to the main sentence of which the verb is the most essential word, the substitutes for those adjuncts are therefore called adverbs. Adverbs are classified into those of time, as now, then, &c., of place, as hither, thither, &c.; of number, as once, twice, &c.; of manner and quality, as wisely, justly, swiftly, &c.; of doubt, as perhaps, possibly, &c.; of negation, as nay, not, &c. Some adverbs are occasionally used as adjectives, as more and most, the more I see it the better I like it; by the more times I see it, in the better manner or degree, &c. Adjectives like adverbs sometimes modify verbs, as the bell sounds clear. In such instances the adjectives are used adverbially.

(*k*) Prepositions seem originally to have denoted relations of place, as above, about, beneath, &c. Many have a borrowed signification, derived from the idea of place or position, as the argument is below a serious refutation.

Inseparable prepositions are certain syllables frequently used in the composition of words, thus be is used for about, as to besprinkle, to sprinkle about. For, signifies negation, as to forbid, to forsake, &c. Fore signifies before, as to foretel, to foresee, &c. Un denotes negation or contrariety, as unequal, unpleasant.

(*l*) Of the many sorts of conjunctions the principal are, the copulative and disjunctive, as before mentioned.

The most usual copulative conjunctions are these—and, if, that, since, for, because, therefore.

The most common disjunctive are—but, or, nor, than, though, unless, either. neither.

Corresponding or preceding conjunctions are—as, nor, or, either, neither; so called because they precede or foretel the use of other conjunctions, as either he or I must write; here either precedes or. Neither virtue nor riches exempts any man from death; here neither corresponds with nor, or precedes it—or and nor are sometimes used for either and neither, as corresponding conjunctions.

Of Derivation.

It has been observed that most of our words, especially our monosyllables, are of ancient Saxon origin, while many others are derived from the Latin and Greek. Hence, we have words nearly synonymous, as truth from the Saxon, and veracity from the Latin veritas; friendship from the Saxon, and amity from the Latin amicus; talk from the Saxon, and conversation from the Latin conversatio. The use of two or more words of exactly the same import in the same connection should be avoided, as it is sufficient to say, He is a man of truth; without saying he is a man of truth and veracity.

Prefixes are letters or syllables beginning a derivative word, as *re*sound, *over*take; suffixes are letters or syllables ending a derivative word, as tru*ly*, excel*lence*, govern*ance*, &c. Many English primitives are compounds of words belonging to other languages, as Cornelius from cornu, a horn, and elios, the sun (the horn of the sun); magnify from magnus, great, and fio, to make. But such derivations are commonly understood from dictionaries, or from classical study. Learners will do well to consult Webster's quarto, or other dictionaries, in that part of etymology which explains the derivation of words. Tooke's "Diversions of Purley,"* and other extensive philological treatises, are useful for students considerably advanced. Our numerous words of Saxon origin are inherited from the Saxon invaders of England, located there in the fifth century.

Some Directions to assist beginners in Grammar to distinguish the classes of words or parts of speech.

A noun may be generally known by its making sense after the word my, as my paper, my book; or after any appropriate adjective, as white paper, an excellent book.

An adjective may in general be known by its making sense after the word things, as good things, bad things; or by joining it to any other appropriate noun, as good books, good principles.

* Diversions, at that place.

A verb may be known by its fit conjugation in the modes and tenses, or in any of them, as I learn, thou learnest, he learns, &c. And if the verb shall be found in the infinitive, present time, as to learn, it will always form a present participle by the addition of *ing*, as learning, choosing. Past participles will make sense after the word had, as had learned, had chosen.

A preposition admits after it a personal pronoun in the objective case, in preference to the nominative, as to him, from them, &c., not to he, from they, &c.

Exercises in distinguishing the Parts of Speech.

It may be expedient to commence with but two parts of speech, as the noun and verb, that the difference between them may be plainly perceived by the use of a simple test, in preference at first, to any definitions which can be subsequently used. Many an adult, not of the most obtuse intellects, will not at first understand us when we define a noun as being a name; for he supposes every word to be a name, and we may let him suppose so, only stating that a noun is the name of a substance, as money, gold, iron, or of an ideal object, as industry, resolution, &c. Nouns in general being a sort of words which will make sense after the word my, as my money, my gold, my resolution.

That a verb is the name of a word which signifies acting or doing, as to take, to choose; being such words as make sense after the pronoun I, thou, and he, as I choose, thou choosest, he chooses, and that if they may be used with I in the present time, they will form another proper word by adding the syllable *ing*, as taking, choosing, &c., the new word thus formed, being a present participle. The learner will be directed to test the verb with my, as my take, and readily perceiving the absurdity of such an application, will apply the proper test. Learners will join adjectives to appropriate nouns, and will vary them in the degrees of comparison; will come to conjugate the verbs in different modes and tenses, and to refer to the definitions of the parts of speech, and these several

topics as exhibited in the foregoing synopsis of etymology, which may be applied as occasion may require in etymological and syntactical parsing. The discretion of teachers will, of course, adapt the learners' exercises to their wants and progressive improvement.

Self-instructors, it is supposed, will derive some benefit from the exercise of selecting words at leisure, and placing them under the following columns, according to the parts of speech to which the words belong; transcribing the columns into a blank book or manuscript, provided for parsing and other exercises.

	Nouns.	*Verbs.*		*Adjectives.*	*Appropriate Nouns.*
(my)	money	learn	(ing)	good	(money)
	silver	rejoice		bright	(silver)
	gold	renew		yellow	(gold)
	iron	choose		hard	(iron)
	property	take		valuable	(property)
	house	resolve		excellent	(house)
	temple	write		large	(temple)
	industry	restore		constant	(industry)
	resolution	relate		firm	(resolution)
	farm	farm		rich	(farm)
	plow	plow		new	(plow)
	pen	pen		elegant	(pen)

By placing I before verbs, and yesterday after them, we shall be guided to their preterites, as I chose yesterday; and by placing I had before them, we shall come to their past participles, as I had chosen.

Write the plural number of man, boy, brother, child, tooth, chapter, penny, leaf, book, pen, assembly, valley, story, chimney, chair, church, hero, radius.

Question. Which of these have the plural number? Gold, silver, iron, box, industry, shelf, table, temperance, river, pride, plow, farm, house, property, resolution.

Vary the following adjectives in the degrees of comparison, as positive wise, comparative wiser, superlative wisest; small, high, low, hard, soft, sweet, sour, good, bad. Add to each of them some appropriate nouns, as a great river, a small book, a high mountain. Compare

these by the adverbs more and most—industrious, excellent, valuable, respectable, ancient, eloquent, as positive valuable, comparative more valuable, superlative most valuable. Enumerate more adjectives at pleasure.

Avoid double comparatives, as more wiser, or most wisest, except when such a phrase can not be construed into an improper nor extravagant hyperbole.

Conjugate the verb learn in the indicative mode, present tense, indefinite form — definite form — pluperfect tense, indefinite. In like manner conjugate the verbs write, choose, take, forsake. Conjugate the verbs come, go, see, rejoice, in all the modes and tenses. In like manner conjugate some other verbs selected at pleasure.

Specimen of Etymological Parsing.

Good boys are duly rewarded.

Good—is an adjective, in the positive degree, [positive good, comparative better, superlative best,] and belongs to the noun, boys.

Boys—a common noun, [common nouns make sense, &c.; define a common noun,] plural number, [sing. boy], masculine gender, in the nominative case to the verb are [boys are].

Are—is an irregular intransitive verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, [I am, thou art, he is, We are, you are, they are; boys are].

Duly—is an adverb of manner.

Rewarded—is a past participle from the verb reward, having the nature of an adjective in the positive degree, [positive rewarded, comparative better rewarded, superlative best rewarded].

To form a passive verb, if desired, we may substitute the following: *are rewarded*, form a regular passive verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person, plural number.

The words in brackets, in the foregoing exercise in parsing, may be used, modified or omitted at pleasure.

SYNTAX.

The formation of correct and elegant sentences depends on agreement, government and arrangement.

Agreement is the conformity which one word bears to another in person, number, gender, case, mode or tense.

Government is the power or influence which some words have over others, in directing the cases, modes or tenses.

Arrangement is the order in which the words of a sentence are placed.

A simple sentence has one nominative case, and one verb expressed or understood, as the boys write. If there are more nominatives and verbs connected, we have a compound sentence, as the boys and girls read and write.

RULE I.—A verb must agree with its nominative in person and number, as I learn, thou learnest, he learns, you were learning.

Note.—1. Sometimes the infinitive mode or a sentence or phrase is used as the nominative case to a verb or participle, the antecedent of a pronoun and a noun to which an adjective refers, the verb and pronoun in such an instance being of the third person singular, and the pronoun being of the neuter gender, as to know one's self is a step towards wisdom, which makes self-examination necessary; viewing a fine prospect is agreeable. Sometimes two or more such sentences are connected by copulative conjunctions, and therefore require plural verbs, nouns and pronouns, (see Rule II).

2. When the verb be, or any of its variations, has two nominatives of different numbers, one before and the other after it, the verb may agree with either, but most usually agrees with that nominative which is nearest to the verb, as the wages of sin is death. Some say the first nominative should always be preferred; but that regard should be paid to that which is most naturally the subject of the verb.

RULE II.—Two or more nouns, or pronouns, of the singular number, connected by one or more copulative conjunctions, expressed or understood, require plural verbs, nouns and pronouns to agree with such connected nouns or pronouns, as Homer, Virgil and Horace were admired by the ancients, and by the moderns they are esteemed most excellent poets.

Note.—1. When several antecedents of different persons are thus connected, the subsequent pronouns and verbs agree with the first

person in preference to the second and third, and with the second in preference to the third, as he and I are rivals, but we are friends.

2. Several nouns in the singular, connected by a disjunctive conjunction, have verbs in the singular, as neither learning, nor usefulness, nor virtue, exempts any man from death.

3. Sometimes antecedents in the singular, with a disjunctive conjunction between them, have plural pronouns in works of approved writers.

4. When several singular pronouns are disjunctively connected, the verb commonly agrees with the nearest pronoun, as I or he is to blame; He or I am to blame.

5. If the verb can be supposed sometimes to have a separate agreement with each of the singular nouns connected by and, such verb may be of the singular number, as salt, and sand, and a mass of iron, is easier to bear than a man without understanding.

6 Singular nouns connected by the preposition with, to other nouns in the objective case, have been allowed, though not often, to have plural verbs; as Cadmus, with his wife, (according to ancient fable) were changed to dragons.* Antigone, with her elder sister, from their infancy were placed under their grandmother's care.—[*Watts on the Improvement of Mind.*]

RULE III.—Singular nouns of multitude may have singular or plural verbs, nouns and pronouns, as the flock is or are scattered; it is or they are without a shepherd, but regard should be had to the sense of the noun as to its conveying the idea of unity or plurality.

RULE IV.—Personal pronouns used relatively, and the adjective pronouns derived from them, must agree with their antecedents in person, number and gender, as this boy studies with diligence; he excels in learning. Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents in person and number, as the boy who studies.

Note.—1. The neuter pronoun it, by an English idiom, sometimes refers to a noun or pronoun of the masculine or feminine gender, in explanatory sentences, as it was he, it was Mary.

2. When the relative is preceded by two antecedents of different persons, having an intransitive or neuter verb between them, the relative pronoun or one used relatively, may agree in person with either of those antecedents; but the latter nominative is usually preferred, as I am the man that take care, or takes care, of your interest.

3. The relative who, refers to persons, as the lady who reads; but the relative which, refers to irrational animalsand to places and things,

* Cadmus cum uxore in dracones conversi sunt."—Vide *Latin Grammar*, by C. ALEXANDER, A. M.

as the book which we read. The relative that, is often used for who and for which.

4 Adjective pronouns are sometimes used as antecedents, as God abhors thy hypocrisy, who hearest his word but despisest his precepts.

RULE V.—Every adjective, every adjective pronoun and every participle in the nature of an adjective, belongs to some noun or pronoun expressed or understood, or to some words used in the place of a noun, as a good man, a wise philosopher, to study is useful. The pronominal adjectives this, that, these, those, and the numerical adjectives one, two, &c., must agree with their nouns in number, as this book, these or those books; one book, two books.

Note.—1. Some adjectives qualify others derived from substantives, as an English Commercial Dictionary, [Dictionary of English Commerce].

2. When several adjectives preceded by the article the, are connected by one or more conjunctions, each adjective referring to a distinct and separate thing, which is comprehended by the noun to which those adjectives refer, such noun should be of the plural number, as the upper and lower hemispheres; the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans

RULE VI.—Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns, and the same modes and tenses of verbs, as he and she can read and write.

Note.—1. Different tenses of the same verb are sometimes elegantly connected, as "Posterity admires, and will long admire, the awful remains of the amphitheatre of Titus." And sometimes it is found convenient to connect different modes and tenses of different verbs, but such deviations from the rule should not frequently occur.

2. When several short sentences come together, with or without a conjunction between them, they will better comport with elegance if the verb in each sentence agree in mode and time, as I came, I saw, I conquered.* Hence all unnecessary change of construction should be avoided.

RULE VII.—Nouns and pronouns in the possessive case are governed by the nouns which they possess, called latter nouns, as my father's house.

Note.—1. The possessive case, sometimes called the genitive, is often expressed by a noun in the objective after the preposition of, as the property of John, or John's property; but this objective will not always express the possessive, as instead of the love of gold, we cannot say gold's love, though both of these expressions, the property

* Veni, vidi, vici.

of John, and the love of gold, would be comprehended in the Latin genitive.

2. Two or more nouns coming together, or near each other, signifying the same person or thing, agree in the same case by apposition, as Paul, the apostle. A noun is sometimes in apposition with a pronoun.

RULE VIII.—Transitive verbs govern the objective case, as I saw them; he teaches us; good scholars love their books.

Note.—1. The verb to be has the nominative case after it as well as before it, as I am he, except in the infinitive mode it is followed by the objective case, when the objective next precedes it, as I took it to be him. This note is said to apply to other intransitive verbs, as intemperate men become nuisances—come to be nuisances.

2. It is said that transitive verbs may sometimes govern two objective cases, one of the person and one of the thing, without the intervention of any conjunction or connecting word, expressed or understood, as he taught them philosophy; and that sometimes a transitive or active verb governs two objective or accusative cases, both of which are expressive of things only, as the literati who make etymology the invariable rule of pronunciation. Some grammarians would suggest that in the first of the foregoing examples, the pronoun them is governed by in, to, or unto, understood and that in the last example, the noun rule is preceded by the verb to be, understood. Passive verbs of asking, teaching and some others, are employed to govern the objective.

RULE IX.—One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mode, as I saw him write; learn to do well. Nouns, adjectives and participles also frequently govern the infinitive mode after them, as they have a desire to learn; he is worthy to be trusted; endeavoring to persuade.

Note.—1. The infinitive mode is sometimes made absolute, not depending on the rest of the sentence when it supplies the place of the conjunction that, with the potential branch of the subjunctive, as to confess the truth I was not there, or that I may confess, &c.

2. The preceding or governing verb in the past time of the potential form by have, requires the same time and formation of the infinitive which follows, as it might have given me much pleasure to have conversed with him. This formation of the infinitive always denotes something antecedent to the time of the governing verb, the present form to write, to be writing, &c.; always denoting time, contemporary with or subsequent to the time of such governing verb.

3. When the infinitive follows the transitive verbs see, hear, feel, let, bid, make, the preposition to is commonly omitted. Hence the governmental influence of those verbs upon the infinitive is readily perceived.

RULE X.—Participles* have the same government as the verbs have, from which they are derived, and are often governed themselves by a preceding verb or preposition, as they could not avoid seeing me; they found him transgressing the law.

RULE XI.—Prepositions govern the objective case, as I received a letter from him, and another from her.

Note, The preposition to is used before nouns of place, when they follow verbs of motion or their participles, as I went to London; I was going to Paris; but the preposition at or in is used before such nouns when they follow the verb to be, and its participles, as I shall be at Rome or in Rome; I have been at London or in London. Other general directions for the use of prepositions might be given, but with many exceptions. Their uses are best acquired from observation of good speakers and writers.

RULE XII.—The objective case of the first and third persons singular, is sometimes governed by the interjections ah! and alas! as "Ah, me! while up the long, long vale of time," &c. Ah, him! the first martyr, &c. "Ah, happy hills! Ah, pleasing shade! Ah, fields beloved in vain!"

The interjection O often governs or precedes the second person in the nominative case independent, as "O man, thy kingdom is departing from thee."

RULES OF ARRANGEMENT.

RULE I.—The nominative case comes before the verb, as John reads; except that it is sometimes placed after an intransitive verb, as only by pride cometh contention. When a question is asked or a command given, the verb or auxiliary precedes the nominative, as Will you write? Was he at school? Choose thou or do thou choose; and in the subjunctive mode it is preceded in the same manner when the conjunction is omitted, as were I to choose I should not hesitate, *i. e.* if I were to choose, &c.

* Present Participles, in the nature of verbs, are often joined with the nominative case absolute, which is commonly formed by the omission of the particles after when, while, since, because, &c., as they coming in he went away, or while after or because they came in, &c.

RULE II.—Adjectives are commonly placed immediately before the nouns to which they refer, as a clear head and a good heart are more to be desired than great riches, ennobled birth and a numerous retinue; but when an adjective is emphatical or is immediately preceded by an intransitive verb, it often comes after the noun, as the genuine cause of every deed *divine*.

"Thine ear is patient of a *serious song*."

The possessive case stands before the noun which is possessed, as Mary's book.

Note.—The adjective is sometimes placed before an intransitive verb, as

"Fair is the rising sun."
"*Sweet* is the breath of morn."

RULE III.—Articles are placed before the noun and adjective, as a book, the scholar, a good artist.

Note.—Articles are placed after the words all, such, and many, as all the men; such an enterprise; many a bargain; and after an adjective, subjoined to the adverbs so or as, and how, as—so wise a statesman; as fine a landscape; how pleasant a prospect.

RULE IV.—The objective case usually comes after the governing verb, as a glad voice cheers the lonely desert, but sometimes by an inversion it precedes the verb, especially in verse, as

"A glad voice the lonely desert cheers."

RULE V.—An adverb must have an appropriate place in the sentence, and sufficiently near the word which it affects, to make such word obvious and for the most part before adjectives, and between the auxiliary and principal verb, as he has written a very excellent book; he has elegantly written, &c.

RULE VI.—Prepositions are placed before the words which they govern, as I received a letter from him, and another from her.

Note.—Prepositions of two syllables accented on the last, are sometimes in poetry, placed after the words which they govern, as—

"A man's courage wou'd now be well tried,
Who should wander the ruins about."

Arrangement is said to be of two kinds, natural and arti-

ficial. The former is when the words of a sentence follow each other as directed in the foregoing rules, in the usual order of common discourse in the same manner as the conceptions of the mind. Artificial arrangement or order, called also transposition, or inversion, is when the words are placed out of their natural order, in the manner described in the foregoing notes and exceptions, without obscuring the sense. They are commonly so placed for the sake of harmony, elegance or perspicuity. In the natural order, when an adjunct of the sentence occurs, consisting of an objective case and its governing preposition, such adjunct follows the verb, as we live, move and have our being in him. Artificial order, in him we live, &c. Further examples:

Natural order or arrangement.

Many a voice and many a harp arose in tuneful sounds,
They sang of Fingal's noble deeds—of Fingal's noble race.

Artificial order or arrangement.

Many a voice and many a harp in tuneful sounds arose,
Of Fingal's noble deeds they sang, of Fingal's noble race.
McPherson's Ossian.

A compound sentence in which the words stand in their natural order.

The armies of Alexander contained but thirty thousand men, and he overcame Darius in one battle, who had ten hundred thousand, when he was so heavy with sleep that his eyes were scarce open, as the stories report.

The same words placed in the artificial or inverted order, by which an ambiguity is removed, by showing that Alexander, not Darius, was heavy with sleep.

The armies of Alexander contained but thirty thousand men, and in one battle, as the stories report, when he was so heavy with sleep that his eyes were scarce open, he overcame Darius, who had ten hundred thousand.

When the natural order of words is smooth and graceful it is generally preferred, except when a different arrangement is more graceful or better understood.

The following examples show that the words of a sentence may be variously arranged.

The people are knowing and conversable, where from want of hands, several occupations must be carried on by the same person.

In a country where several occupations must be carried on by the same person, from want of hands, the people are knowing and conversable.—*Home's Sketches.*

Were all books reduced to their quintessence many a bulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper.

Many a bulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper, were all books reduced to their quintessence.—*Addison.*

An example of the natural order of words in which the ellipsis * is supplied.

Will any man give his voice for banishing a man from this city, whom every city on earth would be proud to receive within its walls? Happy the country that shall receive him! Ungrateful this, if it shall banish him! Wretched, if it should lose him!—*Cicero's Oration for Milo.*

The country that shall receive him *will be* happy. This country will be ungrateful if it shall banish him. It *would be* wretched if it should lose him.

Specimens of Etymological and Syntactical Parsing.

Industry is fortune's right hand, and frugality her left.

Industry—is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, in the nominative case to the verb is.

Is—an irregular intransitive verb in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, agreeing in person and number with its nominative industry, according to syntactical Rule I.

Fortune's—is a common noun used in this sentence as a proper noun, by the figure of rhetoric called Prosopopœia or Personification,† in the third person, singular number, feminine gender, (by the figure) and possessive case, governed by its latter noun hand, according to Rule VIII.,

* Ellipsis is the elegant omission of one or more words in a sentence, without destroying the grammatical construction and is designed to be used without obscuring the sense.

† Personification represents an inanimate object, as a living intelligent person; as famine is thus represented by Cowper,

——"The meagre fiend
Blows mildew from between his shriveled lips
And taints the golden ear."

and stands before the noun hand, according to Rule II. of Arrangement.

Right—is an adjective in the positive degree or state, (this adjective not requiring any other) belonging to the noun hand, understood, according to rule 5th of agreement.

Hand—is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, in the nominative case after the verb is, according to *Note* 1, on Rule VIII.

And—is a copulative conjunction, connecting two sentences, Fortune is, &c., and frugality is, &c.

Frugality—is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender in the nominative case to the verb is, understood.

Her—is an adjective pronoun of the third person, singular number, feminine gender, agreeing in person, number and gender with its antecedent, fortune, according to Rule IV., and belonging to the noun hand, understood according to Rule V. If it be preferred to account it a personal pronoun, it will be said to be in the possessive case, possessing the noun hand, according to Rule VII., and agreeing &c. as before. [Rules of Arrangement may be cited or omitted at discretion.]

Left—is an adjective in the positive degree (having no other) belonging to the noun hand, understood—Rule V.

We are delighted in *viewing a pleasant prospect.*

Viewing—is a present participle in the nature of a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, governed by the preposition in, according to Rule X. This participle is at the same time in the nature of a transitive verb, present tense, [omit mode, person and number] governing the noun prospect.

A—is the indefinite article used before a consonant, and referring like an adjective to the noun prospect. [Rule of Arrangement omitted.]

Pleasant—is an adjective in the positive degree, of comparison (pleasant, pleasanter, pleasantest, or pleasant, more pleasant, most pleasant,) and belongs to the noun prospect—Rule V. [Rule of Arrangement omitted.]

Prospect—is a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, governed by the participle viewing. Rule X.

Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

Shame—is a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case absolute to the participle being.

Being—is a present participle, in the nature of an intransitive verb, present tense—(not varied to express mode, tense, person, nor number) and is joined with the nominative case absolute.

Lost—is a past participle in the nature of an adjective positive degree belonging to the noun, shame, Rule V.; [*being lost*, are

also participles in the nature of a passive verb, present tense, joined with the nominative case absolute.]

"Who *had escaped* the *tomb could* wit *prevail*,
Or wisdom? Wit and wisdom answer *Bayle;*
Star of a lowering sky, that shunn'd the light,
Still more *refulgent* from *surrounding* night," &c.

Had escaped—(would have escaped) an intransitive verb, indicative mode, pluperfect tense, third person, singular number, agreeing with its nominative who. Rule I.

Tomb—a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case governed by the preposition to understood. Rule XI., [escaped from going or descending to.]

Could prevail—An intransitive verb, subjunctive mode, (potential branch of the subjunctive) present tense, hypothetical form, third person, singular number, agreeing in person and number with its nominatives wit and wisdom separately, according to *Note* 2, on Rule II.

Bayle—is a proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case to the verb, *would have escaped* understood.

Star—is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case independent. [This is better than to consider it in apposition with Bayle.]*

That—is a relative pronoun, (used for which) third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case to the verb shunn'd, and agrees with its antecedent star—Rule IV. Star, not sky, was probably intended by the writer as the antecedent.

Refulgent—an adjective of the comparative degree, belonging to the noun star—Rule V. [This is probably better than to suppose this adjective to belong to the noun light.]

Surrounding—is a present participle in the nature of an adjective in the positive degree, belonging to the noun night—Rule V.

The person of the noun, except the second, may in general be omitted in parsing; the occurrence of the third person being so frequent as to become almost a matter of course. Thorough parsing is recommended, following the lines annexed to the several parts of speech in the Synopsis of Etymology. As a learner advances,

* A noun or pronoun, whether of the second or third person, having no verb, is said to be in the nominative case independent, as He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

"Tired nature's sweet *restorer*, balmy *sleep;*
He, like the world his ready visits pays," &c.

some particular words or parts of a sentence may be selected for parsing and for the exercise of criticism. It is well to begin with easy sentences under the rules, and afterwards to proceed with miscellaneous examples. In the last place various errors in sentences selected for the exercise of criticism should be corrected, that exercise being essential to the completion of grammatical skill.

The following examples, among many others, may be used for such exercise.

"Who art thou? Speak! that on designs unknown,
While others sleep, thus range the camp alone."

"O thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire."

"I am the man that takes care of your interest, at the expense of my own"

"O thou Supreme high thron'd all height above,
Who midst surrounding frosts, and vapors chill,
Preside on bleak Dodona's vocal hill."

A stone is heavy and the sand weighty, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both. I commend unto you Phœbe, our sister, which is a servant of the church. "One evening, not long before their desolation, there was seen in the air chariots and armies hovering over the city." What concord can exist between those who commit crimes and they who abhor them? There are many faults in spelling which neither analogy nor pronunciation justify. In unity consists the security and welfare of every society. You and I have the same right to judge for ourselves as them.

Some who the depths of eloquence *have* found,
In that unnavigable stream were drowned.

Him portion'd maids, apprentic'd orphans blest,
The young who *labor* and the old who *rest*.

"A strict observance after times and fashions." He was accused for betraying the trust reposed in him. He arrived to New-York soon after he left London. The farm which he purchased lays in Pittstown. [Lay is ever a transitive verb; lay, past time of lie, to recline, is intransitive.] He done it, they seen him. [Avoid such attacks upon the language.]

"The nations not so blest as thee,
Shall in their turns to tyrants fall,
While thou shalt flourish, great and free,
The dread and envy of them all."

Thomson's Rule Britannia.

The foregoing sentences, with many others, may serve for exercises in parsing, by which their defects may be discovered and corrected, with a readiness proportioned to the learner's progress in grammar. Particular words, without including every word in a sentence, will be often selected for parsing; which will become a pleasure, rather than an irksome task to the ambitious and critical scholar. Any further analysis of a sentence beyond the common parsing, may be included in it, or may be performed separately; the learner being previously informed that the nominative case is sometimes called the grammatical subject, of which subject something is affirmed by the verb which agrees with it, which verb is called the grammatical predicate, and when such grammatical subject [the nominative] or when such grammatical predicate [the verb] is connected with other words expressing the entire idea of such nominative or verb in that instance the nominative, combined with those other words, is called the logical subject; and the verb, including its modifying and connecting words, is called the logical predicate, as "an inordinate love of riches frequently causes the commission of great crimes." Here the words, "an inordinate love of riches" constitute the logical subject, and the words "frequently causes the commission of great crimes," constitute the logical predicate. Thus it is seen that an addition of certain words to the nominative forms the logical subject, and that an addition of words to the verb forms the logical predicate. These additional words often admit of being separately analyzed. If no such additional words be used, the nominative is said however to be both the grammatical and logical subject, and the verb alone may likewise be both the grammatical and logical predicate.

Specimen of etymological and syntactical parsing, including the exercise of analysis recommended in some grammars.

An—is the indefinite article used before the singular noun love, and is immediately followed by a vowel in the word inordinate, and is so used according to Rule III. of Arrangement.

Inordinate—is an adjective in the positive state or degree of comparison belonging to the noun love, according to Rule V. and is placed before the noun, according to Rule II. of Arrangement, and is compared by the adverbs more and most.

Love—is a common noun, of the third person, in the singular number, neuter gender, in the nominative case to the verb causes, [called also the grammatical subject, and when combined with the words "an inordinate" and the words "of riches" contributes with those words to form the logical subject,] and is placed before the verb, according to Rule I. of Arrangement.

Of—is a preposition governing the noun riches, according to Rule XI., and is placed before the noun according to Rule VI. of Arrangement. [It denotes the relation between love and riches.]

Riches—a common noun, third person, plural number, but sometimes used in the singular, neuter gender and objective case, [or grammatical object] governed by of as before mentioned.

Frequently—is an adverb of manner added to the verb causes, and is placed near it, according to Rule V. of Arrangement.

Causes—is a regular transitive verb [the grammatical predicate] in the indicative mode, present tense, indefinite form, third person, singular number, agreeing in person and number, with its nominative love, according to Rule I.

The—is the definite article before the noun commission, Rule III. of Arrangement.

Commission—is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the verb causes, Rule VIII. [The words "the commission" may be called the logical object.]

Of—is a preposition governing the noun crimes, Rule XI.—[or governing the logical object, great crimes, and showing the relation of that object to the word commission] and is placed according to Rule VI. of Arrangement.

Great—is an adjective of the positive degree, belonging to the noun crimes, Rule V., and placed according to Rule II. of Arrangement.

Crimes—a common noun, third person, plural number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by of, as before mentioned, Rule XI. [The words "great crimes" express the logical object, the words "frequently causes the commission of great crimes" express the logical predicate.]

The exercises in analysis are included in brackets, and can be used separately or together, with the common parsing in this and other sentences, at the option of instructors who will guard the scholar against any habitual neglect of syntactical parsing.

PUNCTUATION.

This is by some writers presented as a part of orthography, and by others annexed to the rules of syntax. As the proper use of the characters in punctuation exhibits the component parts and construction of sentences, and affects the sense in a very considerable degree. Punctuation divides a written composition into periods, and those periods into their constituent parts.

The following points and characters are used, and take their names from the sentences and clause which they severally distinguish.

1. A period .
2. A parenthesis ( )
3. A comma ,
4. A semicolon ;
5. A colon :
6. An interrogation point ?
7. An exclamation point !

A dash or horizontal line ——

A person well understanding the use of the comma, soon perceives the use of the other points. To understand the comma it is well to compare it in the first place with the parenthesis, the use of which is supposed to be generally known and easily understood. It includes words not essential to the construction of a sentence in which they are used, but explanatory of some part of it or independent of it, as consider (and may the consideration sink into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life. Now the comma is often used in the place of the parenthesis to which the use of the comma is analagous, and which may be exchanged for the comma when the parenthetical phrase is short, as Epicurus, we are told, left three hundred volumes of his works. Here it is seen that the words, *we are told*, might be included in a parenthesis, but those words comprising a very short sentence in the midst of a longer one, the comma is therefore preferred. A parenthetical phrase does not always occur in the midst of a sentence, but frequently

at the close, as Profane swearing does not proceed from any natural propensity, no man being born with a swearing constitution. When the words are more closely connected with the rest of the sentence, than those which are usually included in a parenthesis, they should be included by commas, as this globe, *which we inhabit*, is a planet. Here it is seen that to omit the words between the commas would not destroy the sentence, as this globe is a planet. The like observation applies to these examples, A pleasing variety is discernible, throughout the whole visible creation. A star, at the tail of the little bear, is called the polar star. Several such clauses may occur in the same sentence requiring a separation from each other by commas, and from the nominative and verb; as vices, *like shadows*, *toward the evening of life*, grow great and monstrous. The general rule respecting such clauses is supposed to be sufficiently easy and comprehensive, when added to the following relative to substantives, adjectives, verbs, &c. Three or more substantives in the same case are separated by commas, as climate, soil, laws, food, and other accidental differences, have produced an astonishing variety, in the complexion, features, manners and faculties of the human species. Substantives connected in pairs by conjunctions, are not usually separated by commas, as there is a natural difference between modesty and impudence, virtue and vice, knowledge and ignorance. Three or more adjectives belonging to the same noun are separated by commas, as sacred history is a simple, dispassionate, impartial detail of facts. Adjectives in pairs are separated by commas between the pairs, as truth is fair and artless, uniform and consistent. Several verbs agreeing with the same nominative as well as several verbs in the infinitive, depending on one common word and immediately succeeding one another, are separated by commas, as virtue strengthens, consoles, entertains, advises, and sustains us. The Spartan youth were accustomed to go barefoot, to lie on the ground, to suffer heat and cold, to live on the most ordinary food, to be engaged in continual exercise, and to be inured to blood and

wounds. Verbs are separated by commas in pairs, when they are connected by conjunctions, and several adverbs in immediate succession may be separated by commas. as a philosopher should examine every thing coolly, impartially, accurately, and rationally.

A semicolon is placed between complete sentences following each other, not wholly independent of each other, which frequently have the conjunction but or for between them, as loquacity storms the ear; but modesty gains esteem.

> Be wise to-day; 'tis madness to defer;
> Next day the fatal precedent will plead;

Thus on, &c. *i e.* for 'tis madness, &c. For next day, &c.

The intervention of no particular conjunction is necessary: the principal inquiry respects the degree of connection between the adjoining sentences or clauses. When several detached sentences succeed one another. each forming complete sense, they are properly enough distinguished by a period: yet when they are short and have a slight connection, the exact point may be omitted or diminished, and the semicolon used instead of the period, as "the epic poem creates admiration; tragedy forces tears from us; comedy makes us laugh; and pastoral produces gentle and pleasing sensations. The colon and semicolon are often used for each other.

The colon is designed to separate sentences more distantly connected than those which are usually separated by the semicolon, as the ordinary reader does not relish what is sublime: it does not affect him. No man should be too positive: the wisest are often deceived. When a conjunction between the sentences is not expressed but understood, the colon is used in preference to the semicolon. A conjunction between the foregoing sentences would form a closer connection and require a semicolon, as no man should be too positive; for the wisest are often deceived.

The period as is generally known is placed at the end of a complete sentence. It is also used at the end

of abbreviations. No measured uniform time or exact proportions of pauses in reading is required by the punctuation; which is chiefly designed to show the grammatical construction of sentences and to remove ambiguities. In general, a slight pause or modulation of voice is proper at a comma, and some longer one at the semicolon, colon and period, but the number and duration of these depend on the subject of the composition, and on the sound judgment and good taste of the reader.

The note of interrogation is used at the end of a sentence when a question is expressed, and sometimes distinguishes an interrogative sentence from the imperative mode, as Do you hear me?

A note of exclamation is a mark of wonder, surprise, grief or joy, as Light of my eyes! he comes! unlooked for joy! It is sometimes used in vociferation and anxiety, as

"A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!"

and it is sometimes used after some exclamatory irony, as "O excellent guardian of the sheep! a wolf!

The proper use of the dash or horizontal line is when the sentence breaks off abruptly; where the sense is suspended, where a significant pause is required, or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment, as

"If thou beest he —— but, oh! how fallen!
Milton.

A significant pause.

Lord cardinal! if thou think'st on Heaven's bliss,
Hold up thy hand, make signal of that hope ——
He dies, and makes no sign!—*Shakespeare's* HENRY VI.

The dash is sometimes used for the parenthesis, as—

Ye Persian dames, he said, to you belong ——
Well may they please — the morals of my song.
Collins.

ORTHOMETRY.

Orthometry or Versification, is that part of Prosody which explains the manner of combining accented and unaccented syllables in poetry, according to certain laws established in the language, supposed to be analagous to the use of long and short syllables, or quantity, in the poetry of the ancients. In English verse there are four ways of combining accented and unaccented syllables, called measures or feet, by reason of the uniform and steady movement on the lines in reading resembling an even tread or marching of the feet. These four principal measures are called the Iambic, Trochaic, Dactyllic and Anapæstic feet.

The Iambus is a foot of two syllables, the first syllable short or unaccented, and the last syllable long or accented, as in the word rĕsōund. In Iambic verse it is easy to perceive that every second syllable is accented or emphatical, as

"Ere morning stars his glowing chambers hung,
Or songs of gladness woke an angel's tongue.
—— Ye heights and depths resound,
Resound, resound, ye depths and heights resound."

The Trochee is the reverse of the Iambus, being a foot of two syllables, the first long or accented, and the second weak or unaccented, as trūly. The short or weak syllable is often omitted at the end of every second line, which may then be said to end with a semipede or half foot, as

"When the rosy morn appearing,
Paints with gold the verdant lawn,
Bees, on banks of thyme disporting,
Sip the sweets, and hail the dawn."

Sometimes the weak or unaccented syllable is omitted at the end of every line, as

Lovely lasting peace of mind,
Sweet delight of human kind.

The Dactyl is a foot of three syllables, the first long or accented, and the two last short or unaccented, as in the word cūrious. Dactyllic measure seldom occurs. A

supernumerary short or unaccented syllable may be placed at the beginning of the line, as in the first of these lines,

"As over thy shoulder thou lookest to hush the babe,
Bleakly the blinding snow beats in thy hagged face.
Southey.

The Anapæst is a foot directly the reverse of the Dactyl being a foot of three syllables, the two first short or unaccented, and the last long or accented as in the word appertain. In anapæstic measure it is easy to perceive that every third syllable is long or accented, as

"Not in party too high, nor in spirit too low,
Not the least of a clown, nor too much of a beau."

Sometimes a line begins with an Iambic foot, as

"The sweets of the forest shall fail,
And winter discolor the year."

Some one of these four measures or feet is ever the groundwork of the verse, but other feet are sometimes used in different parts of the lines according to certain rules, with the occasional use of five secondary feet, being the Spondee or foot of two syllables, both long or accented, as vāst vōid; the Pyrrichius or foot of two syllables, both short or unaccented, as ŏf ă; the Antibacchus or foot of three syllables, the two first long or accented, and the last short or unaccented as glād vōicĕs; the Tribacchus or foot of three syllables, all short or unaccented, as impetŭoŭs tŏ the plain; and the Amphibrachus, a foot of three syllables, the first and last of which are short or unaccented, the second long or accented, as rĕmēmbĕr. The several measures or feet may be understood and remembered by a collection of the words which exemplify the feet, the short or unaccented syllables being italicised: the others being long or accented.

Principal or primary feet.

1. Iambus, *re*sound.
2. Trochee, tru*ly*.
3. Dactyl, cu*rious*.
4. Anapæst, *a*ppertain.

Secondary feet.

1. Spondee, vast void.
2. Pyrrhichius, of *a*.
3. Antibacchus, glad voices.
4. Tribrachus, impet*uous* to the plain.
5. Amphibrachus, *re*member.

The following examples by their proximity, may render the difference of the measures more perceptible.

Iambic Measure.

Let these the brave triumphant victor grace,
And warring nations part in leagues of peace."
Pope's Homer.

Trochaic Measure.

"Lo! my fair, the morning lazy,
Peeps abroad from yonder hill;
Phœbus rises red and hazy,
Frost has stopp'd the village mill."

Dactyllic Measure.

"Weary way wanderer, languid and sick at heart,
Traveling painfully over the rugged road,
Wild visaged wanderer," &c.—*Southey.*

Anapæstic Measure.

"May I govern my passions with absolute sway,
And grow wiser and better as life wears away."

Many varieties are formed from each of the four principal measures, by the means of different lengths of lines, as in the following examples:

Iambic Measure.

Example 1.—Each line consisting of four Iambic feet, constituting long metre.

"Each lonely scene shall thee restore,
For thee the tear be duly shed,
Beloved, till life can charm no more,
And mourn'd, till Pity's self be dead."—*Collins.*

Example 2.—The first and third lines consisting of four Iambic feet, and the second and fourth lines consisting of three such feet; the four lines exhibiting common metre.

"Ten thousand thousand precious gifts,
My daily thanks employ;
Nor is the least a cheerful heart,
That tastes those gifts with joy."—*Addison.*

Trochaic Measure.

Example 1.—Each line consisting of three Trochaic feet, with a semipede, or half foot, at the end of the lines, excepting a Dactyl in the first and third lines.

" Childhood *happiest* stage of life,
Free from care and free from strife,
Free from *memory's* ruthless reign,
Fraught with scenes of former pain," &c.

Example 2.—Each line containing two feet, with a semipede.

" In the days of old,
Stories plainly told," &c.

Anapæstic Measure.

Example 1.—Each line containining three Anapæsts.

" Not a pine in my grove is there seen,
But with tendrils of woodbine is bound."—*Shenstone.*

Example 2.—The third line having four Anapæsts, and the fourth line having three. The other lines begin with an Iambic foot, the first line ending with a supernumerary short syllable.

" How fair is the rose! what a beautiful flower!
The glory of April and May;
But the leaves are beginning to fade in an hour,
And they wither and die in a day."

Other varieties of the principal measures often occur.

Mixed measure of which the ground work is the Iambic foot.

'Tis done; dread winter spreads his latest gloom,
And reigns tremendous o'er the conquer'd year;
How dead the vegetable kingdom lies!
How dumb the tuneful: &c.—*Thomson.*

By dividing the foregoing lines into their component feet, they may be scanned as follows:—

Iambus,	*Spondee*,	*Iambus*,	*Iambus*,	*Iambus*,
resound,	vast void,	resound,	resound,	resound.

'Tis done; — dread win — ter spreads — his la — test gloom,

Iambus,	*Iambus*,	*Iambus*,	*Iambus*,	*Iambus.*
resound,	resound,	resound,	resound,	resound,
And reigns —	tremen —	dous o'er —	the con —	quered year;

General rules showing in what parts of the line the several feet may be used in Heroic measure in which the Iambic foot is the ground work of the verse, each line consisting of five feet.

1. The Iambus is used in any part of the line and is graceful in every part, as

> Around his brows a golden cloud she spread,
> A stream of glory flamed above his head.—*Pope's Homer.*

2. The Trochee may be used in the first foot, and is most graceful before a Spondee, as

> " *Down the tall steep* their bursting summits roll."—*Dwight.*

3. The Trochee is sometimes used in the second foot; and Milton has used it in the third, in this line,

> " Eve rightly call'd *Mother* of all mankind."

4. The Dactyl may be used in the first foot, as

> "*Annual* along the bright ecliptic road."—*Thomson.*

5. The Anapæst is occasionally used in every foot, except the first.

6. The Spondee may be used in any part of the line.

7. The Pyrrhichius is sometimes used in the first foot, with rather a feeble effect, as

> " *Nor in* the helpless orphan dread a foe.—*Pope's Homer's Odyssey.*

8. It may be used in the second, third and fourth feet.

9. It is sometimes used in the last foot, as

> " Stray in the pleasant paths of *poesy.*"—*Southey.*

10. The Antibacchus and the Amphibrachus are used only at the end of the line.

11. The Tribrachus may be used in the third and fourth feet.

It is seen that measures or feet, rather than rhyme, are essential to poetry; rhyme being merely the correspondence of similar sounds at the ends of the lines. A single line in poetry is often called a verse. Poetry without rhyme is blank verse, a complete line consisting of five feet, the Iambic being the ground work. A single line affords melody. Several lines compared afford harmony. Melody is derived from the stated number of feet in the line, and often from the appropriate use of the rhetorical figure called Personification. The perception of similar feet and similar poetical pauses and rhymes in several lines constitutes harmony.

As to the poetical pauses which add to melody and harmony, they are the cæsural and final. The latter end every line, whether it be marked by a sentential pause or character in punctuation or not, and is to be regarded in reading so as to distinguish each line from others. The cæsural pause divides the line into equal or unequal parts, and is sometimes independent of the sentential pauses denoted by punctuation, and sometimes coincides with them. These poetical pauses are not of constant occurrence, except the final pause, but deserve the notice of students and readers. Those who would direct their inquiries upon this topic, beyond the proper limits of a Manual of this kind, are referred to Kaimes' Elements of Criticism, Sheridan's Rhetorical Grammar, to Noah Webster's and Lindley Murray's Essays on Prosody, and to the writings of the best poets.

Examples of melody afforded by each line, and of harmony arising from the reader's comparison of the similarity of the feet, cæsural pause and rhyme are seen in these lines—

> "Warms in the sun, refreshes in the breeze,
> Glows in the stars, and blossoms in the trees.
> Lives through all life, extends through all extent, &c.

Here each line is similar to the others in commencing with a Trochaic foot, followed by two Iambics, which are succeeded in each line by two short syllables, each line

ending with an Iambic foot, while a further similarity occurs at the end of the second foot in the use of the cæsural pause; but all these contributions to harmony do not constantly occur. The final pause, without its coincidence with any other, is observed in these lines of Milton.

—— Thus with the year
Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn.

In reading verse all the words should be pronounced as in prose, laying no stress upon unaccented syllables; and every foot should be pronounced in equal time with the others, or nearly so, dwelling lightly upon syllables usually accented when they stand in the places of unaccented syllables, as do the words *grow* and *wears* in this couplet,—

"May I govern my passions with absolute sway,
And *grow* wiser and better as life *wears* away."

To describe, at length, the different subjects of poetry, as the Epic, Lyric, &c., would transcend the proper limits of a Manual of this kind. Pastoral poetry, supposed to be of Oriental origin, describes the early shepherd's life, or that of rural nymphs and swains; and requires an elegant simplicity of style, as do such songs and hymns as are set to music. Lyric poetry is applied to the composition of songs, hymns and odes. An Epic or Heroic poem is a poetical narration of the important actions of some person celebrated in the poem as those of Æneas, in Virgil, or the exploits of Achilles in the Illiad of Homer.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

We have read the manuscript copy of a "*Manual of Practical English Grammar*," by H. Munsell, Jr., and believing it to be in many respects an improvement upon similar treatises now in use; cheerfully advise its publication and recommend its use in the schools of the State.

Subscribed by

Hon. L. CHANDLER BALL,
C. H. GARDNER, A. M., *Principal of Ball Seminary.*

Hoosick Falls, N. Y.
January, 1851.

From J. B. WILKINS, Counsellor, &c., and formerly County Superintendent of Schools for Rensselaer County, N. Y.

I have attentively read a "*Manual of Practical English Grammar*," written by Hez. Munsell, Jr., of Hoosick Falls, N. Y., and I consider it a very useful work, simplifying many intricate parts of grammar, and especially the Etymological part. The rules of Syntax are full and well chosen; and the subjects of Punctuation and Orthometry judiciously and plainly treated. I consider the whole of the *Manual* a valuable improvement which merits the patronage of the friends of education.

J. B. WILKINS.

Troy, N. Y.
January, 1851.

Recommendation from Rev. William Arthur, A. M.

Having examined in manuscript a *Manual of English Grammar* by Mr. Munsell, from its perspicuity and brevity I think it well calculated to subserve the design of the author in rendering the study of the English language, to the pupil, both easy and comprehensive.

WILLIAM ARTHUR.

Hoosick, N. Y.
February, 1851.

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